

DWIGHT'S AMERICAN MAGAZINE.

AND

FAMILY NEWSPAPER.

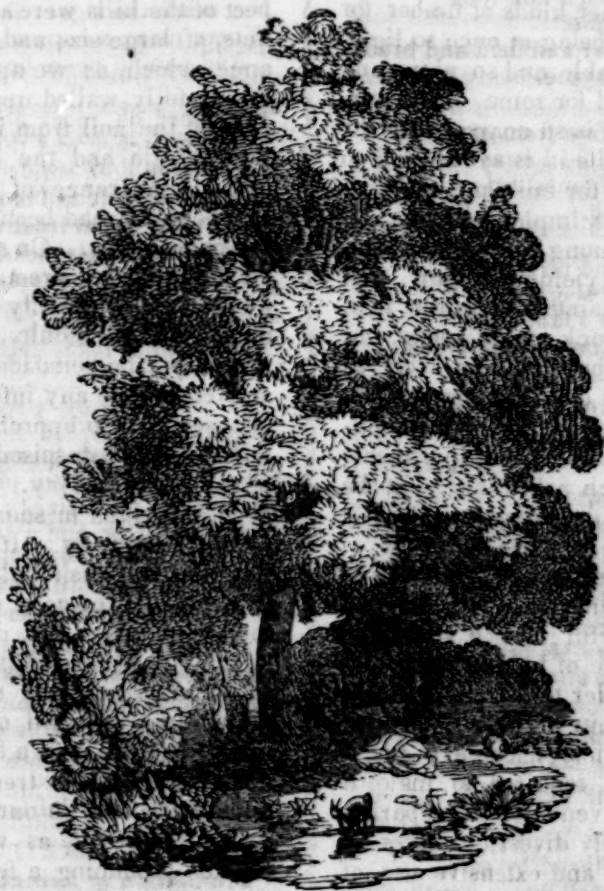
EDITED BY THEODORE DWIGHT,
Express Office, 112 Broadway.

PRICE 4 CENTS, SINGLE.
\$2 A YEAR IN ADVANCE.

VOL. III.

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, AUGUST 6, 1847.

No. 32.



THE CHESTNUT TREE.

To many of the natives of this country the Chestnut tree must be associated with some of the pleasing recollections of childhood, as well as with impressions of beauty and utility, as it is one of the most common products of nature in many parts of our country, and one of the finest and most useful of the trees of our forests. But there are countries in which it is regarded with still greater interest. In some parts of Italy, for example, it is cultivated and preserved with care, and the nuts form an important article of food to the inhabitants. This is chiefly the fact in the more sterile and inhospitable portions of the Alps and Appennines, where few other plants of any kind, serviceable to man, can be made to

flourish: but among some of the lower eminences, wherever the soil is uncongenial to other food-bearing trees, the chestnut is sometimes found covering the summits and even the hill-sides, with its thick and inviting shade.

The form of this tree is usually symmetrical, though it inclines to shoot out more than one stem. The foliage has a deep but lively hue; and the leaves, being long, pointed and somewhat radiating, give it a marked, but pleasing peculiarity. The foliage is thick, and the shade consequently deep; so that few of our trees have a more impenetrable shade to offer to the weary traveller in a summer's day. In such parts of our country as are favorable to its growth, it shoots up with

much rapidity and luxuriance; and the abundance of nuts which it bears, renders it an object of peculiar attraction to the squirrels and the boys. Its principal use with us is for making posts and rails for common country fences; and the extent to which it is employed for that purpose is so great, that it would be difficult to estimate its value. In large districts of the U. States it is preferred to all other kinds of timber for this use: none other being at once so light, so easily split, so durable and so abundant. It is occasionally used for some other purposes: but the grain is so coarse and the texture so loose; while it is so soft and so brittle, that it is unfit for building, the manufacture of carriages, implements, &c.

The Chestnut is among the various trees which are capable of yielding sugar. All readers are not acquainted with the fact, that not the hard or rock maple alone, but the chestnut and the butternut, as well as the soft maple, have a considerable quantity of sugar in their sap, which may be boiled down so as to afford it. Experiments have been made, which prove this: but the cost of obtaining it is too great to allow it to become profitable.

The Italian Chestnut bears a fruit two or three times larger than our own; but yet it seems to us wonderful that it should be looked to as an article of human food. Indeed, when we consider the small quantity and poor quality of flour made of chestnuts, with the length of time necessary for a tree to attain the size required to make it fruitful, and the inconvenience of preparing the nuts, we can hardly divest ourselves of wonder at the ancient and extensive use of this article. From the time of Virgil, to the present day, the tree has been depended on by the Italians as one of their sources of sustenance: but, judging from what we have seen of the bread made from the nuts in modern times, there is but little ground for apprehension, that any other people will interfere with them, in either the culture or the consumption of it. In the heart of the Appennines, between Leghorn and Genoa, is a retired village; and there we first formed an acquaintance with Chestnut bread. Fellow-travellers had before described it to us, in such times as to excite some interest: but it had never been set before us, and we had had no opportunity to judge of its quality. After a long and toilsome morning ride on mules and horses, over a lofty region just flooded by a violent storm, we caught a view of the most forbidding town it had yet been our fortune to see.

Surrounded by rude, grey mountains, and situated at the bottom of their valley, stood the village, on the bank of a wild stream, which had but yesterday retired within its banks, after one of its frequent overflows, by which it is accustomed, every now and then, to flood the streets, and the lower stories of the dwellings, and the parish church. The only trees which relieved the barren aspect of the hills were a few scattering chestnuts, of large size and flourishing appearance, which, as we approached, proved to be carefully walled up about the roots, to prevent the soil from being washed away by the rain and the torrents. They had every appearance of age, except decay; and no doubt had been the care of successive generations. On reaching the little inn, on the principal street, we learned that the inhabitants fed chiefly on bread made of the nuts. With difficulty, however, could the inn-keeper be persuaded to bring a bit of it, or even to give any information on the subject, seeming to apprehend that his townsmen would be despised for living on food of such poor quality. When produced, indeed, it seemed in some measure to justify his backwardness. It was in the form of a flat and roundish cake, about an inch in thickness, of the color of mahogany, heavy, moist, clammy, and destitute even of the slight, but agreeable flavor of the nut. A single inspection and the taste of a crumb or two fully satisfied our curiosity, and we turned from it with a feeling of disappointment. So fine a tree, nurtured with so much care, and, in our opinion, worthy of such a preference as was shown it, a species too producing a fruit so much larger than our own, now seemed to be almost worthless. We would fain hope that better bread might be made, by very careful hands: but we were assured that this was considered as of the best quality, no place in Italy being more dependant on it.

The chestnut tree is called 'Castanea' in Latin, and is said to have derived that name from the town of Castanea in Thessaly, celebrated for its chestnut groves in ancient times, and still remarkable for their abundance. It lives to a great age; and some writers have supposed the oldest trees in the world to be of this kind. It is a native of the Old and the New World, and there is not difference enough anywhere found in it to make a distinct species. In North America it sometimes grows to the height of eighty or ninety feet, and yields in abundance one of our most esteemed nuts.

In the Linnæan system this tree belongs to the 21st class, 'Monocæcia,' and 7th order, 'Polyandria.' The import of these terms in English is, that the stamens grow on separate flowers from the pistils, but both kinds on one tree; and that more than 20 stamens are in each stamen-flower. The walnut, beech, hazle, and filbert belong to the same class and order.

Among the most remarkable chestnut trees in Europe may be noticed the following. One grew at Tamworth in England, which measured 52 feet round. It was planted in the year 800; and in the reign of King Stephen, 1135, was distinguished as "the great chestnut," on a boundary line. So late as 1759 it bore nuts and produced young trees. The celebrated chestnut tree of Mount Etna has been described in our first volume, page 564.

MANSIONS OF THE BRITISH NOBILITY.—The occasion of Queen Victoria's visit to the seat of one of the most powerful of the British nobility—Burghley Hall—has been improved by the London letter writers to give full details of the manner of life in one of them. Here we have a glimpse of Burghley Hall:—

Burghley Hall is one of the most splendid and extensive of the mansions of the nobility erected in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The mansion has received some recent additions, which, if not perfectly in keeping, add much to the picturesque beauty of the structure. The principal front, which has a northern aspect, is upwards of 200 feet in length. In the centre is the entrance porch, the gates of which are of a highly decorated arabesque pattern of bronze richly gilt, and approached by a flight of semi-circular steps, which were covered, as well as the vestibule and the various corridors, with crimson cloth. A parapet of fretwork in stone surrounds the entire building, and the turrets at the various angles are surmounted by octangular cupolas and gilt vases. The courtyard is surrounded by a corridor, at the angles of which are magnificent sculptures and vases. All the apartments are exceedingly lofty and of large proportions; those set apart for her Majesty and Prince Albert being on the south side of the edifice, and commanding a series of delightful views over the surrounding coun-

try, and immediately in front a sloping lawn and beautiful sheet of water. It is unnecessary to say her Majesty's apartments are fitted up in the most costly and studied style. They are approached by the grand staircase, at the bottom of which are two large and massive bronze vases, and in the centre a bust of Queen Elizabeth. The approach is between four pillars of lofty proportions, the walls being hung with tapestry, and the recesses ornamented with sculptures. At the top of the staircase is the ante-room, and beyond this the Queen's drawing-room. The suite opens beyond this into the Queen and his royal Highness's private apartments, all the decorations of which are of the most elaborate and costly description. The fauteuils, ottomans, couches, &c., are of the richest velvet, and the fittings-up of the dressing-rooms of silver gilt. All the apartments are crowded with paintings by the most eminent masters, among whom may be enumerated Carlo Dolci, Leonardo Da Vinci, Raphael, Titian, Holbein, Rubens, Corregio, &c.—Most of the ceilings are painted by Verrio, and on one of them nearly the whole of the heathen mythology is depicted. On the ground floor, at the foot of the grand staircase, is the breakfast room, a noble apartment, and very magnificently furnished.

The great hall, called the banqueting room, is also hung with a number of pictures, including one of his royal highness Prince Albert in his state robes, which was only lately put up. The ceiling is of carved oak, and the decorations, although less florid, are in keeping with the rest of the edifice. In a recess in the centre of the hall are a large silver fountain, and two cisterns of the same costly material, the handles formed of lions rampant, the arms of the family. The fountain weighs upwards of 3000 ounces, and is said to be the largest piece of plate in Europe.

COST OF HEATHENISM—In Benares, India, there are 5000 places of heathen worship; and there are supposed to be 50,000 brahmins in that single city. One individual has presented \$1200,000 to the different shrines, simultaneously, for the support of heathenism. A missionary saw the money carried through the streets: there were between thirty and forty cart loads!—SEL.

Plan of Colonization for Ireland.

Concluded from page 485.

The American Union is only suitable for a mere emigration of the Irish as hewers of wood and drawers of water. We turn, therefore, to the part of North America in which no such impediments exist. In British North America, an Irish colonization, if it were so conducted as to be orderly and prosperous, would be cordially welcomed by the present inhabitants. A colonization directed to British North America might be regulated and fostered by the British government. The field of colonization, therefore, which we propose, is the British provinces in the neighborhood of the St. Lawrence.

As the main stream of Irish immigration into Canada passes on into the United States, being attracted thither by the numbers who have gone before, the Canadian farmer (and in a country like Canada nine-tenths of the people are farmers) seldom retains the labor of a hired emigrant, and is never sure of being able to replace it by that of another at the moment when he first thinks proper to quit his service. He seldom attempts, therefore, a mode of cultivation which requires the constant employment of many workmen; his motive for accumulating capital is very much weaker than it would be, if he were always sure of an ample supply of labor.

For an Irish Roman Catholic Church, a mere trifle is provided by the state in Canada, though the churches of England and Scotland and the Wesleyan Methodists are endowed by law. In Canada, therefore, the church of the Irish Roman Catholics occupies an inferior position, and is really starved as well. In the United States, on the contrary, where the spiritual government of all creeds is on a footing of legal equality, that church which may be termed the Irish Roman Catholic, being the church of Rome administered by a clergy whose language and sympathies are those of the Irish immigrants, is maintained by the contributions of large masses of people who have acquired some property by their labor.

On the other hand, it must be admitted that there are circumstances in the state of Canada singularly favorable to the object in view. There is scarcely a

spot in the whole country that fails to exhibit marks of progress.

Upon the whole, the colony appears to be in just that state of advancement on the one hand, and room for further progress on the other, which affords the best opportunity for successful colonization on a great scale.

It is obvious that the first step in the process of success must be a great increase of the demand for Irish labour in Canada. All the measures that we are about to propose have been selected as more or less calculated to promote this one object. If your lordship should agree with us as to the character of the means proposed, there will remain but two questions for your consideration; namely, first, whether those means, however suitable in character, are sufficiently potent; and, secondly, whether they are unobjectionable upon considerations apart from suitability.

The great and primary want in Canada, as in every new country, is capital.

We imagine that no one would deny, that if Canada, with its present inhabitants, and in its present state of advancement, could be brought across the Atlantic and placed by the side of Ireland, under British institutions and laws, Ireland would no longer suffer from excess of numbers. The whole surplus population of Ireland would at once find employment, at good wages, in the settlement and improvement of the new territory. But this effect would be far from due to the mere facility of emigration from the old into the new Ireland, situated side by side; for the mere emigration of poor laborers does not produce employment for them. The effect would be occasioned by the immediate investment of all the capital of the United Kingdom which could not find equally profitable in its present field, in the cultivation and improvement of the new territory. British capital would be advanced to the owners and other inhabitants of the new territory, on all sorts of securities; on that of the land itself; on that of turnpike-roads and railroads; and on that of town and country rates. There would be capital enough in the new territory for the employment of any conceivable number of emigrants; and until the whole of it were brought into the most productive cultivation, the increase of capital, or the demand for labor, might go on in-

creasing continually. This supposed case leads to the inquiry, whether it would be possible to enable the inhabitants of Canada, remaining where it is, to obtain large advances of capital in the British money-market.

Respecting the mere value of Canadian securities, there would be no insuperable doubt in the British money-market; because inquiry would soon convince capitalists of the ability of the colonists to pay debts incurred for the improvement of their country. But there would be doubt on the point of faith or obligation. It is the discredit which at present attaches in public opinion to everything relating to colonies and colonization. In the city of London, the great money mart of the world, the disposition to engage in colonial enterprises is extinct; and its extinction is there attributed to causes utterly beyond the control of those who have lost their money by engaging in colonial undertakings. It is idle to reason with this sentiment: it is a prolonged panic, which cannot cease till its causes shall be forgotten, or till a better system in the administration of colonial affairs shall have had time to create new impressions.

In the first place, the British capitalist doubts whether a provincial law, under which he had advanced money in the colony, might not be altered by provincial legislation; and in the next place, he has an apprehension which is far from definite, but therefore perhaps the more deterring, that political events might ensue which would render even imperial law inoperative in Canada.

There are two defects to be cured. The first of them—that is, the supposed instability of provincial law, or the liability of provincial law to lawful alteration—might be cured by giving to contracts between British capitalists and public bodies in the colony, the validity of imperial law: the contracts should be made under a law of the imperial parliament; which, according to the constitutional law of the colony, the imperial act for the union of the provinces, could not be lawfully touched by provincial legislation.

A method of curing the second defect is not so obvious. The defect would indeed be cured by the simple method of a specific guarantee by the imperial parliament against adverse political events.

We are persuaded that the mainspring of all successful colonization consists of the incentives of private interest and enterprise. But a parliamentary guarantee of interest, 'at the market rate,' on money invested in the improvement of Canada, would deprive the lender of all further anxiety—of all motive for caring whether the money were wasted or beneficially laid out.

According to this mode of proceeding, the capitalists would rely primarily on the profits of the investments. He would thus be induced by the motive of a strong private interest to exercise caution in selecting securities of ample money value—that is, in taking care that his money should not be laid out except on objects so productive as to yield him a higher return than the very low rate of interest secured at all events. He would be constantly under the influence of strong personal inducement to so manage his investment that the guarantee of interest should ultimately be a nullity.

Having suggested the mode in which, as it appears to us, the discredit attaching to Canadian securities may be effectually removed, we proceed to specify the modes of investment to which we conceive that the proposed guarantees should apply. They are of two kinds. The first would consist in loans to the district councils of Canada, who would anxiously apply for and extensively employ them. The second would consist in undertakings by British capitalists of public works on their own account.

Another and a very potent means of augmenting the capital of Canada, would be measures which should have the effect of attracting into that colony from the United States persons of Irish birth or immediate descent, who have acquired property by their labor, but whose existence is made uncomfortable by the antipathies of religion and race in the midst of which they live.

If the capital of Canada, or the demand for immigrant labor, were increased to the uttermost, it would still be necessary to provide for a regular succession of immigrants, so that those who had acquired property by their labor should make room in the employment market for fresh arrivals. Otherwise, when once that market was fully supplied with labor, so great a stream of Irish emigration as we are anticipating, must materially decrease.

Manner of Catching Wild Pigeons.

For Dwight's Am. Magazine. By a young man of Connecticut.

In order to enter into the spirit of this interesting pursuit, the reader must imagine himself to have taken his seat in a one-horse wagon, without springs of any kind, and to have set out to travel, over a rough, uneven road, to some retired spot, generally a clearing in the midst of the woods, far removed from the bustle and din of busy men; at least so far that none of it can be heard.

Before the time for pigeons to appear, either in the spring or in the fall, a place is selected in some spot peculiarly haunted by them. It is an excellent thing to have a few tall, old, dead dried-up trees not far off, as these are the favorite stopping places. The spot having been pitched upon, a piece of ground, a little larger than the net to be used, is carefully smoothed over, every blade of grass is dug up and the whole made to look like a newly-made bed in a garden. This is called the pigeon bed. One side of it are then placed three or four dry trees, twenty or thirty feet high, which are called the pigeon-trees, or lighters. When things have proceeded thus far, the work is generally stopped, and the whole left for a week or two: a quantity of grain having been sprinkled on the bed. When it is ascertained that any number of pigeons have got baited, and come there regularly to eat the grain, it is time to proceed with further preparations.

On the opposite side to that on which the pigeon-trees are placed, at the distance of about thirty feet from the corner of the bed, is built a small, tight hut, large enough to contain two or three persons, made of pine or cedar boughs. This house is built by degrees, so as not to alarm the pigeons, and is called the bush-house. Inside of it is firmly planted in the ground a stiff walnut sapling; and, in a line with it, at the same distance from the other corner, another of the same description is placed. They are called fly-ups or spring-poles. The net, which is light but strong, is fastened by loops to two sticks, down into the ground at the corners, under the lighters. It is then laid flat upon the ground, covering the whole bed. A long rope, run through the farther side, from the trees,

is then tied at each end to the fly-up, and stretched by them.

It will now be readily perceived, that, by forcing this rope, with the net attached, to the pigeon-trees, the spring poles will be bent over, and held like a bent bow. The rope, being carried there, is fastened in such a manner that, on a sudden and strong pull, it is released, and of course the poles fly up and regain an erect position, throwing the net instantly over the bed, and capturing whatever is therein.

When a sufficient number of pigeons are baited, it is time to commence catching. An old pigeonier rarely takes more than one companion, sometimes two. If there should happen to be more, they are posted at a great distance from the bed, so as not to terrify the pigeons. Those admitted into the bush-house must be persons of a taciturn disposition: or, if not, those who have the faculty of holding their tongues when necessary. The first step is the setting of the net, as has been before described. It is folded into a compact roll, extending the whole length of the bed under the trees, and covered entirely, yet lightly, with very fine dust. There must be no stick or twig intermingled with it, as a small one might delay the sudden spring of the net, and allow all or part of the prey to escape. All tracks of footsteps are now carefully raked over; and a fresh supply of bait is put into the bed. Almost every pigeonier has something which he mixes with the wheat, to render it more attractive to the pigeons. The composition of these mixtures is kept a profound secret, and he must be an intimate friend indeed who shall be favored with even a hint of it.

All being ready, the sportsmen take their places in the bush-house, and sit, talking in low whispers. Even this conversation is almost entirely suspended, as soon as the pigeons begin to arrive. There are left loop-holes among the cedar boughs, so as to enable those inside of the bush-house to command a view of the bed and the lighters. They are however so small as to defy the keenest sight from without. From about two in the afternoon, if that is the time chosen, or, if in the morning, immediately after daylight, the pigeons begin to arrive: singly, in pairs or in flocks. Perhaps the inexperienced may suppose that they imme-

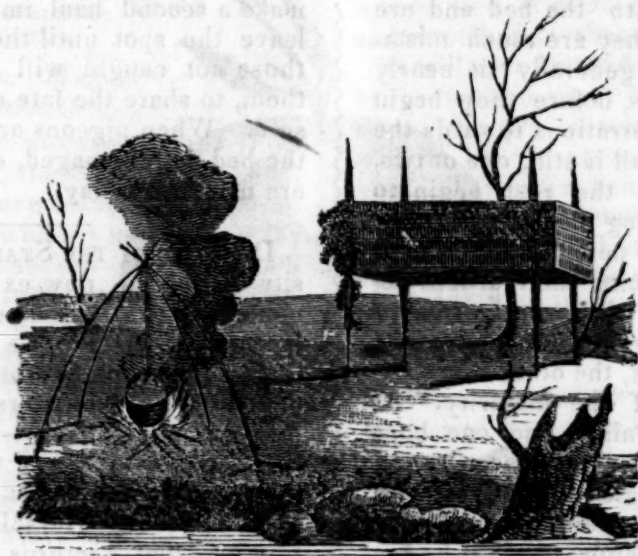
diately descend into the bed and are caught; but, if so, they are much mistaken. The pigeons generally sit nearly an hour on the trees, before they begin to make any demonstrations towards the bait. At length, if all is still, one or two, more hungry than the rest, begin to stretch out their long necks, turn their heads sideways, and perform other evolutions, plainly evincing their ardent desire for their meal. Apparently, hunger and decorum are arguing the case: one argues for the wheat, the other for waiting the pleasure of the majority. At length hunger prevails; and one hops upon a branch somewhat nearer to the ground, and again ogles the wheat, with longing eyes; then peers suspiciously around, above and below, to see if he can espy any hidden foe. Poor fellow, do you not know that under yon green bush, as it seems to you, are concealed your blood-thirsty enemies, with their fingers itching to have hold of your innocent neck, and their hearts beating high with excitement, as they witness your preparations to enter the toils, so subtilly spread for you? He sees none of this however; and at length summons courage to fly down to the bed and commence eating. The whole flock generally follow the first. Sometimes, however, only a part go down, and the person in the bush-house, wishing to catch the whole, frightens those in the bed up to the trees again, by snapping a twig, not bigger than a pipe-stem. When all has gone right, and the pigeons are all busily feasting upon the grain, the man in the bush-house, stealthily and noiselessly rising to his feet, pulls the rope suddenly and strongly: the net is disengaged, the spring-poles throw it over the bed, and the whole body of pigeons are caught under it in an instant.

If intended to be kept alive, they are preserved by putting them into bags or baskets. If otherwise, they are killed before being taken out of the net, by simply pressing on the top of the skull. This kills them instantly, and without pain. If there are enough pigeons left to justify a second haul, the net is set as before. The feathers must be carefully picked from it and from the bed, and buried at some distance. If any blood should have fallen on the ground, even a drop, it must be carefully scraped up and buried. It is not however generally advisable to

make a second haul immediately, but to leave the spot until the next day, when those not caught will bring more with them, to share the fate of their predecessors. When pigeons are in plenty, and the bed well managed, one or two hauls are made everyday. J. P. N.

DIAMETER OF THE STARS.—Great diversity of opinion now exists among astronomers as to the diameter of the stars. If, says M. Arago, we should take for their discs such as they appear to the naked eye, certain stars would be 9000 leagues in diameter—equal to 27,000 times greater diameter than the sun; and the most moderate calculation would be 1700 millions. Herschel's last calculation was that Arcturus had a diameter of nearly four millions of leagues—twelve millions of miles. If the apparent diameter of two seconds and a half, assigned by Herschel to the Goat, was real, the mass of that star must be more than fourteen millions times greater than that of our sun. But there is no certainty in this, nor anything to question that our sun is a star. The sublime idea in the Holy Scriptures that the Creator had made all with number, weight and measure, is followed by Plato, who called it the geometry of the heavens. Halley, the friend of Newton, believed that all stars were of the same magnitude—that of our sun; and that difference of distance only caused the apparent difference of size. The number of stars visible by means of a telescope of twenty feet of focal distance may be more than five hundred millions. It is affirmed by M. Arago that there are certainly stars in the firmament whose distance from the earth is 344 and even 900 times greater than that of the stars visible to the naked eye. See what a conclusion this leads us to! It is admitted that light, with the velocity of 77,000 leagues a second, takes three years to reach us from the nearest star. And there are stars 344, and even 900 times more remote! Then there are stars whose light does not reach us until after two thousand seven hundred years—an infinity in distance as it is in numbers.—SEL.

There are 250 churches in New York, valued at \$40,000,000. The Trinity church property is worth about \$30,000,000.—SEL.



INDIAN BURIAL-PLACE.

The native tribes of this country had differences in their modes of sepulture, from the earliest days of their intercourse with foreigners, though most of them practised interments in a sitting posture. At least this was the common mode in the Eastern States, and some other portions of the country, where the ornaments and weapons of the deceased, with the remains of a pot of succotash, or beans and corn, are often found with his ashes, in turning up the soil. The mummy or dried body of a female, which was taken from the Great Kentucky cavern about twenty-five years ago, was drawn up in a sitting posture; and some of the graves opened in Florida two years since, near the surface of mounds, indicated that the bodies had been placed in a similar manner.

The ceremonies and superstitions of the ignorant savages differed somewhat in relation to funerals, and the future state; but, in general, as Wood says, the old writer whom we have quoted on this subject, (vol. ii. p. 161), their ideas of another world "jump well with that of a Mahomedan paradise." In Catlin's entertaining Travels will be found drawings and descriptions of Indian places of interment, among which are platforms, elevated on trees or poles, used by certain of the tribes. One of the latter is represented above, which is a picture of one erected by a family of Ogibways in the west, some tribes of whom, occasionally or uniformly, depart from the prevailing custom of the rest, and keep

their dead above ground. Some travellers have supposed that this was done in certain cases, when the remains were to be removed and interred in some distant spot: but others inform us that these funeral platforms are allowed to remain for years, indeed until the whole gradually falls to decay and is torn and scattered by the elements.

The totem, or figure of some animal, representing the tribe, is often rudely drawn on a stone, tree or post near the body; and the grove or spot of ground appropriated to the mournful purpose is respected, even, we believe, by enemies as well as by friends. The corpse, before it is deposited upon the platform, is usually enveloped in successive garments, or robes, skins, birch-bark, &c., and then fastened securely to the frame, which is sometimes elevated to a considerable height in a tree. When placed upon a little staging, as above-represented, it is usual to plant a running vine in the ground, and train it up the posts and over the platform, so as to form a complete arbor over the remains of the departed friend.

We have before given a print of an Ogibway funeral, conducted according to the more general customs of the great Algonquin family, (see vol. ii. p. 161.)

If you join in grave conversation, intended to move the deep feelings of the heart, do so without affectation, without overstretching sentiments, for the sake of producing effect.—*Art of Conver.*



THE POMEGRANATE.

There is something remarkably fine and promising in the name of this rich fruit, even to the ear of one who has never seen it; and its beauty and flavor are by no means inferior. It is one most attractive to the sight and grateful to the taste. It is supposed to have given the name to the city of Granada, in Spain, where it was abundantly cultivated by the Moors.

The tree is small, resembling, in general appearance, the hawthorn. In the wild state, indeed, it does not exceed the size of a bush: but cultivated specimens sometimes attain the height of eighteen and twenty feet. The leaves grow opposite each other, and about three inches long by an inch or less in breadth, of a firm texture and a beautiful, bright green.

The flowers, for which alone it is cultivated in our northern states, are superior to most others, in hue, position and display. They are usually of a deep scarlet, with fleshy petals, and grow in clusters of three or four, at the extremities of the branches. In the double varieties, which are chiefly in demand, they

give the plant a most conspicuous appearance; and, as they continue to appear in long succession, the flowering lasts for several months.

This fruit, when in perfection, is of the size of a large orange, nearly globular, covered with a thick and hard rind, which varies in color, from yellow to green, dark red, and a mixture of all these. At the outer end is a crown-shaped circle. The rind readily breaks when ripe, and then the chief beauty of the fruit appears, which is in the deep-red, semi-transparent pulp, enclosing numerous roundish seeds. The flavor is very fine, and the appearance of the pulp is like that of rich preserves. Of this plant there are several varieties, most of which are designated by the color of the flowers: the red, double-red, white, double-white, yellow and dwarf. The yellow is rare; and the dwarf is generally regarded as a species. It is a native of the Caribbee islands and South America, and, is very small, only five or six feet high, has a shrubby stem, linear leaves, and red flowers.

History.—The Pomegranate is indigenous in Barbary, Persia, Japan and several other countries of Asia, and has been long naturalized in the south of Europe, the West Indies, Mexico and South America. A wild species grows in the Himalaya mountains, which is also planted near the villages; and in Manzanaran is a grove of it, which yields seeds for exportation. A seedless variety, much celebrated, is cultivated in the fertile gardens below the snowy mountains near the river Caubul. Great quantities are brought by northern merchants from Caubul, Cashmere and Boodurmar into India.

This fruit, beautiful and delicious as it is, is adapted to such a variety of soils and situations, that it is annually produced in great quantities, in some of those countries, and still forms, as it has done for centuries, an important article of food for the people. Indeed, the pomegranate tree ranks, in this respect, with other principal food-bearing plants. Mr. Browne remarks, (and to him we are indebted for a large share of the materials introduced into this description,) that the historical interest of the pomegranate is very great. It partakes of the antiquity of the vines the fig and the olive.

It is mentioned by Moses among the prominent ornaments of the robe of the ephod, and was valued by the Hebrews. Theophrastus calls it Roa, by the Phœnicians it was known as the Sida, the Greek name is Cytinos, and Pliny informs us that the Romans called it 'Malus Punica,' or Phœnician apple. It is counted among the most valuable productions of the promised land, as in Deuteronomy viii. 8.

"A land of wheat and barley, and vines and pomegranates, a land of oil-olive and honey." The fruit was carved on the two brazen pillars made by Hiram, for the porch of Solomon's temple.

In Solomon's Song, an orchard of pomegranates is spoken of 'with pleasant fruits;' and allusion is elsewhere made to a kind of wine made from them.

In the island of Eubœa was formerly a statue of Juno, holding a sceptre in one hand, and a pomegranate in the other. Pliny mentions nine varieties of the plant, among which are the sweet, the sour, the mild, the austere and the wine-flavored. He speaks also of a dye obtained from the flowers, with which cloth was colored light red. The rind of the sour po-

megranate, he says, was preferred by tanners and curriers, in dressing leather. The city of Granada, in Spain, had a split pomegranate for its arms.

Turner's Herbal, printed in 1548, is the oldest British book which contains any allusion to this plant in that country: but it had been introduced a long time previously by monks, in convent-gardens. It is now common, and the double and fruitless varieties are now cultivated in great numbers, especially in and about London, where the fruit is sometimes ripened. It is generally trained to walls; and the largest in Britain is said to be one trained against Fulham palace, forty feet long and fifty wide.

In the south of Europe hedges are sometimes formed of it, and the fruit is raised in considerable abundance. It is sometimes trained so as to form a broad head, with its branches first spreading, and then drooping on every side. At Nice and Gezoa great numbers of pomegranates are reared in boxes, and transported to different countries. They will not bear the winter at Paris: but they are numerous in the conservatories of that city and Versailles, where are plants known to be nearly two hundred and fifty years old.

The Pomegranate was early introduced into South America by the Spaniards and Portuguese, where it has long been very common in gardens, and along the avenues of plantations. It is a great favorite also in our own country, and not only in the southern states, where it will grow in the open air through the year, but also in the middle and northern, where it requires the protection of the green-house.

'Soil, situation and culture.'—A great variety of soils will bear the single wild pomegranate: but, if double flowers or fruits are desired, the soil must be rich. The French gardeners supply their plants with the richest every year. It may be easily propagated by seeds, by cuttings, of shoots from roots, by layers and by grafts. The seeds however soon lose their vitality, and must be sown soon. Only the short and slender shoots will produce flowers, and these alone should be cleft in pruning. In very rich soils the roots also should be pruned every year. *Uses.*—Besides its nutritive properties and its agreeable and refreshing flavor, the rind is used as medicine.

America and Italy.

We take pleasure in placing the names of these two countries side by side, for reasons which we have more than once given to our readers. We have now again to direct attention to Italy, after a longer silence respecting it than usual.

A letter from a friend in that country, which brings some of the latest information, communicates several facts of uncommon importance, and expresses some opinions worthy of the particular consideration of our readers.

In the first place, several of the improvements promised in different parts of Italy, are going on. Railroads are making from Genoa to Turin, from Milan to Switzerland, &c., so that, with those already made or planned elsewhere, extensive lines will soon be in use through some of the most important parts of the peninsula. That the sights presented by trains of freight and passengers, and a personal experience of the benefits of this wonderful modern invention, will excite the susceptible minds of our brethren of those delightful regions, none of us can doubt.

Intellectual and moral influences, however, have been recently brought into operation, by more direct means. The Pope and the Grand Duke of Tuscany have removed so many restrictions from the press, that numerous publications have recently appeared, of a character and spirit hitherto unknown in Rome and Florence, and the public mind already shows signs of extraordinary agitation. In a country where literature and science have long been cultivated, although among a small part of the people, and from which civilization and the arts have twice begun to shine out over Europe, we cannot but expect to find the first rays of freedom and illumination welcomed with enthusiasm.

Could all our countrymen but be acquainted with some of the devoted Italians, who are now labouring for the benefit of their country, and learn the facts which, in a city like New York, we have opportunity to know, they would participate with us, in an ardent desire to lend them all the assistance that America can afford. We would set our printing-presses at work, at once, to multiply the best and most appropriate publications in their language, and send them by thousands up the Mediterranean; we would provide for the extension of education among them, and establish newspapers, in different places, to advocate the principles on which their happiness

must be founded. Our bible societies and other philanthropic associations are ready to lend their aid, and the Christian Alliance, (the society so vehemently anathematized by the late pope), will gladly act as the agent of America, in extensive measures for the good of Italy. Divine Providence seems to call us to commence the enterprise; and we can most confidently assure our readers, that they cannot contribute to a more important, or a more promising undertaking.

The character, objects and intentions of the present pope still excite much speculation: but well informed persons, so far as we know, agree in opinion of him. He has assumed a new position, and talks and acts much like an enlightened and honest man. In all this, however, we have no doubt he acts blindly. He is under the flattering delusion of Gioberti, who has eloquently, but inconsistently, insisted in his writings, that the pope is bound to take the lead in the improvements of the day, and conduct mankind in the path of freedom, civilization, general intelligence and happiness. He proceeds, as we have before remarked, on the assumption, that the religion of Rome is Christianity: but this is so false a position, that one of the first effects of the illumination of the minds of Italians must be, their discovery of this imposture, and their rejection of the foundation which sustains the throne of the Pope himself.

The Grand Duke of Tuscany, who probably feels in his heart less solicitude than his neighbour, about 'the patrimony of St. Peter,' has assumed an attitude more like that of a real friend of his people. He has just introduced several important improvements into his administration, for which he has received a formal vote of thanks, from committees representing the various classes of the inhabitants of Florence, with the mayor of the city at their head. His reply to their address was marked with sincerity, and contains an apology for such of his past measures as may have been susceptible of an unfavorable interpretation. The tone of it is that of a man of benevolence, intelligence, and resolution, accompanied by humility.

But the most important and promising step we have seen taken, is one of his just made known. He has issued instructions to the Censors of the press, enjoining upon them to discourage the publication of all works 'tending to promote fanaticism, and superstition among the people! This as our readers may well suppose, accords ex-

ceedingly well with our own views. In our opinion, the innumerable tales of miracles and prodigies, which have long formed almost the entire reading-matter of the few readers who exist in Romish countries, are one of the greatest evils from which they suffer. If our readers will recur to our first volume, they will find remarks on "the literature of Rome," which we need not repeat; and many extracts from one of the latest specimens of it, viz. the "Miracles of St. Filumena." Now, as hundreds of tales like that are in circulation, under the direct patronage of the priesthood, it may be imagined that the Censors of Tuscany will have much work to do, and speedily introduce a great change. Some of the first questions to be asked are of great importance; What is fanaticism? What is superstition? Are the 'Lives of Saints' liable to objections? Are they authentic? Are they to be re-printed? If not, ought they to be used in seminaries, convents or families? What books are truly Christian, and not liable to objection? What standard can be resorted to? Is the Bible to be admitted or prohibited; and with or without comment?"

Questions like these must naturally be asked, whenever the Grand Duke's Instructions to his Censors shall come into discussion; and what ground can the advocates of Romish literature take and sustain in their defence?

Thus we see already, one of the natural and direct tendencies of the Pope's system. He is placing himself among the advocates of modern improvements, or what the Europeans have lately named "progress;" and his next neighbour-monarch has begun to rival him in his career. Can the pope or Gioberti raise an objection against the discouragement of "fanaticism" or "superstition" in Tuscany? Certainly not, they are two of the greatest obstacles in the road of improvement. A 'deep-cut' must be made through them, wherever the great railroad of "Progress" is to pass. The only doubt, therefore, that can arise, must be on the question of what are fanaticism and superstition; and that must now be settled in Tuscany by the Censors, or by appeal to the Grand Duke, and the people will soon decide it everywhere for themselves.

Beauty never appears with so much grace as when beaming through a shower of virtuous tears.

[SEL.]

IMPROVEMENT IN GAS MANUFACTURE.

—A recent number of the London Railway Gazette contains a notice of the prospectus of a new gas company, which embraces in its proposed operation a variety of useful and important objects, and is to be called the "Cardinal and Central Gas Light, Ventilation, Animal Charcoal, and Carbonaceous Manure Company." The objects and designs of the company are stated thus:

It is formed for the introduction to public utility of a new, cheap, and efficient method of manufacturing gas from sources hitherto unproductive—for a more efficient mode of warming and cooling apartments; for a new system of ventilation; for a new preparation of animal charcoal of superior quality; which, having been employed in various chemico-economical operations, will form a highly superior manure to any now in general use. The most novel feature in the formation of this company is, the privilege to be granted to the customer, of changing the present mode of lighting at so much per 1000 feet, to 'such an illuminative power, at so much per quarter, to be estimated by the size of the room to be lighted, by every 100 cubic feet of space, which will be accomplished at one-third the present charge.' The prospectus states, that from the value of the remains in the retorts, and their improvements in the manufacture, a superior illuminative gas can be produced by them at 4 shillings per 1000 feet. These advantages are obtained from the use of one-fourth of bones to three-fourths of coal; and the substances obtained from this system are: grain black for the sugar refiner; flake black for the japanner, currier, &c.; ivory black, coke from the coke ovens and retorts; limpid naphtha; the ammoniacal salts; sal-ammoniac and sal-volatile; bone earth, used in the manufacture of porcelain; carbonaceous manure; and a large volume of rich gas, at the rate of 7000 feet for every ton of bones calcined. The patentee of this new, and apparently economic and elegant system, is a gentleman who was for many years a pupil of Dutton, the celebrated originator of the theory of atomic chemistry, and also of Berzelius; and has founded his system on true chemical principles, and on the law of luminous bodies, as laid down by Davy, Sir J. Leslie, and other eminent men; and, when carried out, will, no doubt, obtain great support from its purity—it is free from those exhalations so injurious to paintings and decorations.

Jalapa.*(Continued from page 483.)*

The Plaza.—Many beautiful bouquets are offered for sale: and on the outskirts of the crowd are billets of wood, each a load for a man or woman, and little packages of charcoal. So you can buy your dinner, and just fuel enough to cook it every day. Meats are sold elsewhere. In the neighboring shops, are exposed rice, sugar and corn, and milk, which the venders assure you is from the cow (an important fact, in this region of goats and asses,) and not watered. Next to the variety of produce, you are struck by the very small quantities in which everything is brought for sale.

On Sundays too, one sees, what is a rare sight on other days, the ladies of Jalapa, picking their way across the market place to the churches. Many are of unmixed Castilian descent, and quite beautiful. The bells are ringing with redoubled energy, and there goes the padre, the corpulent gentleman in the blue gown and broad-brimmed white hat. It is paved throughout with brick, and on this flooring kneel side by side the rich and poor, the Spanish lady next to the poor Indian woman. There are a few seats at the side, which, before our leveling race entered, were reserved for the dignitaries of the state; now generally usurped by heretics who do not kneel. At immense expense must have been the fitting up and decoration of the interior. There are twelve altars, with altar pieces reaching to the height of twenty or thirty feet, of wood elaborately carved and richly gilt, images of the Virgin, gaudily and expensively dressed, crucifixes, paintings, and ornaments of silver, most of them in extremely barbarous taste, and designed "ad captandum vulgus." Gilding and tinsel predominate in the view.

The portico is a resort for the venders of confectionary, of which these people have a greater variety than I have ever seen elsewhere. There are boys seated on the pavement, with trays of cakes of every description, from the most delicate sponge-cake, down to sweetened bread; and women offering 'tortillas,' a sort of hoe-cake prepared from maize. There you find pastry, which is a triumph of the confectioner's art; and of preparations of sugar, and candied fruits, there is no end. I have risked the total destruction of my digestive organs, in mak-

ing researches among these articles, in the hope of being able to give you some account of their qualities—but I abandon the attempt; they baffle description. While there are delicacies to please the most fastidious, temptations are not wanting to those whose slender purses constrain them to less refinement in appearance. Women are seated before little pans of burning charcoal, with the materials for a species of extempore pie, before them; of what composed, I cannot tell. When a purchaser appears, some of this compound is placed upon a piece of thin paste about as large as the palm of one's hand, and the whole is laid on the burning coals, and in a few minutes is ready. This preparation seems to be much in demand among the poorer class of people. Pots of soup, most suspicious looking stews, and incredibly small pieces of freshly cooked meat are also sold here, and little cups of chocolate. When the evening is advanced, or the material exhausted, the dealers put the furnace on their heads and march off, the fire still burning. Speaking of chocolate one does not know what the perfection of chocolate is, until he comes to Mexico. The Mexican chocolate is a fine, rich, spicy drink, scarcely imitated in other countries. Those who were under the fire of the batteries of Vera Cruz, declare that they like the Mexicans' chocolate much better than their shells. In the evening, the plaza rings with the cry of 'nieve de leche y limon.'—Anglice, ice cream and lemon ice. They are about half frozen by the help of snow from the mountains, and quite palatable and refreshing.

In a walk through the town, a day or two since, I was shown the position, about two miles distant, where Cortes fought a celebrated battle; the 'Cerro de Maquilatepec,' a hill with a steep ascent, from which he drove a far superior force of the natives assembled to oppose his progress. On its summit is now a square tower of stone, of modern construction.

Within the present town, the conqueror also erected a church, which is yet standing. It is a most venerable looking structure, of an oblong rectangular form, little or no attempt at external ornament, a tower at one angle, and massive buttresses at intervals around the walls, which are covered with the moss

of centuries. It bears the date of 1556. Its interior is newly finished with the usual amount of gilding, and contains one or two good paintings. An addition has been made to the building within a few years, of a monastery, now occupied as an army hospital. You may imagine that these relics of the heroic Spaniard are most interesting to us, as ours is the first invading army which has penetrated the interior since that of Cortes.

There are few other places of interest in the town, several other churches, a fine set of barrack at the eastern end, enclosing a large parade-ground, with a beautiful fountain; near it a washing establishment, a large brick structure, open at the sides, in which a stream of water constantly flows through a large number of small tanks, in which a hundred women or more are constantly engaged in their occupation of laundresses. It is said to be customary to send clothing from Vera Cruz to Jalapa for the benefit of the beautifully clear water of this place, with which it is abundantly supplied. There are numerous public fountains, and one in the court-yard of most of the principal houses.

BOTANICAL DEPARTMENT.

AGE OF PLANTS—Some plants, such as the minute funguses, termed mould, only live a few hours, or at most a few days. Mosses for the most part live only one season, as do the garden plants called annuals, which die of old age as soon as they ripen their seeds. Some again, as the foxglove and the hollyhock, live for two years, occasionally prolonged to three, if their flowering be prevented. Trees again, planted in a suitable soil and situation, live for centuries. Thus the olive tree may live three hundred years; the oak double that number; the chestnut is said to have lasted for nine hundred and fifty years; the dragon's blood tree of Teneriffe may be two thousand years old. When the wood of the interior ceases to afford room, by the closeness of its texture, for the passage of pulp or sap, or for the formation of new vessels, it dies, and by all its moisture passing off into the younger wood, the fibres shrink, and are ultimately reduced to dust. The centre of the tree thus becomes dead, while the outer portion continues to live.—SEL.

Cabbage.

The cabbage is among the oldest vegetables used by man. The Greeks and Romans had an early knowledge of its usefulness. It was termed by the former *Raphanos* from the resemblance which its seed bore to the radish; by later writers the *Krambo* or *Koramble*, it being supposed to injure the sight, and by the latter *Brassica*. It was also called *Caulis*, from the goodness of its stocks, and hence the name of cole or colewort. Cabbage means the head or ball formed by the folding or turning in of the leaves close over each other; and from this circumstance arose the term cabbaging applied to tailors, who, while at work at the private houses of their employers, were often accused of cabbaging or rolling up pieces of cloth, instead of the list and shreds which they claim as their due.

The Greeks believed that the cabbage sprung from the sweat of Jupiter, while laboring to explain two contradictory oracles. It was so highly esteemed by the ancients that two physicians wrote each a treatise on its properties, and it also claimed the consideration of Pythagoras and Cato, who both wrote upon it. The ancient Romans having expelled their physicians, resorted to the cabbage alone as their only medicine for every disease, for the space of six hundred years. It was eaten raw by the Greeks and Romans to prevent the effects of wine, clear the brain and remove intoxication. Olives have since been substituted. They believed, too, in the sympathy and antipathy of plants as well as animals. 'The vine,' says an ancient writer, 'by a secret antipathy in nature, especially avoids the cabbage, if it has room to decline from it, but if it cannot shift away, it dies for very grief.' So also thought Pliny. It was employed by the ancients in a great number of diseases with what they supposed to be a salutary and beneficial effect. At a later period the cabbage was said to cause troublesome dreams, and to send up black vapors to the brain. Galen condemned it, and Isaac says '*animæ gravitatem facit*,' it brings heaviness to the soul.

Every species of cabbage is now supposed to be hard of digestion and flatulent, and to possess but little nutrition. "They tend strongly," says Phillips, 'to putrefaction, and run into this state sooner than almost any other vegetable.'

When putrified, their smell is likewise the most offensive, greatly resembling that of putrid animal substances. They are now out of use as a medicine—although so highly recommended by ancient writers; some of whom asserted that they had much nitre in their composition, which made them diuretic, and others that they were both astringent and laxative, and also prevented intoxication. The juice was said to be a laxative, and the substance an astringent; hence the proverb in Salemo: "*Jus caulis solvit cujus substantia stringit.*"—SEL.

JUVENILE DEPARTMENT.

A Faithful Dog.

Some years since, a family residing in one of the Southern states possessed a Newfoundland dog, which conceived a strong friendship for the little daughter of its owner. This child he used to escort regularly to school, carrying her satchel in his mouth, and was generally at the door when the hours of her penance were over, to trot along by her side homeward.

One day, the girl, having strayed away without the knowledge of her parents, sauntered along to the water, and was amusing herself by walking upon the string pieces of a pier. The dog, as usual, was her only attendant, and seemed to watch her pranks with much attention and considerable uneasiness. Frequently warned, by various persons upon the wharf, to keep farther from the edge, she nevertheless, with juvenile waywardness, continued her dangerous pastime, until finally missing her footing, she fell into the water. Instantly the neighborhood was in an uproar; some ran to loosen a boat, others flung boards into the stream, and a sailor present stripped off his jacket and shoes for a plunge after the little cast-away.

But Towser fully comprehended the matter at a glance, and before it was fairly known that she was in peril, was by the side of his young mistress, had seized her by her floating dress, and was paddling back with his precious burden to the wharf. The generous Jack tar had now only to leap into a ship's yawl hard by, and pull both of the dripping creatures into it, and deposite them upon the dock in safety.

Towser, of course, became more than

ever a favorite with the family, and held a very enviable rank above others of his species. As his mistress increased in strength and stature, she was never allowed to forget the debt of gratitude due her canine companion, although she had outgrown the necessity of calling upon him for farther services, so that he slept and grew fat upon his laurels, like some old soldier, whose youthful privations and evidences of valor have procured him a pension for the rest of his pilgrimage.

Some five years after this occurrence, the family had resolved upon changing their place of residence for the city of St. Augustine. The morning of their departure had arrived; the schooner which was to convey them to their new home was casting off from the pier, the very one which had been the scene of Towser's exploit, but he was nowhere to be found.—They whistled and called: but no dog appeared; the captain became restive, would wait no longer, gave the order, and the craft swept along the waters with a breeze, and was soon a quarter of a mile from the shore.

The girl and her father were standing at the stern of the vessel, looking back upon the city which they had probably left forever, when suddenly Towser was seen running down to the edge of the wharf with something in his mouth. With a glass they discovered that it was his master's pocket handkerchief, which had been dropped somewhere upon the road down to the vessel, and which he recollected, with some compunctions of conscience, that he had sent his shaggy servant back to look after.

The dog looked piteously around upon the bystanders, then at the retreating vessel, and leaped boldly into the water. His master offered a large sum if the captain would drop his boat and pick him up, told him of the manner in which he had preserved the life of his daughter, and again offered him the price of a passage, if he would save the faithful creature. The girl joined her entreaties with those of her father, wept and implored that her early friend might be rescued: but the captain was a savage; he was deaf to every appeal of humanity—kept obstinately on his course, and the better animal of the two followed the vessel until, his strength exhausted, and his generous heart chilled by despair, he sank among the more merciful billows!—SEL.

POETRY.

The Orphan's Tear.

Did you not see the pearly drop,
That dimmed that eye so clear,
And if ye saw it, know ye not
It was an orphan's tear?

What though, with friends and kindred blest,
No parent's hand is near
To sooth the sorrows of that breast,
Or wipe the orphan's tear;

I saw her in the brilliant hall,
Where nought but smiles appear,
And yet amid the festival
She wiped the starting tear.

And once she stood 'neath hymen's bower,
With him she held so dear,
E'n then, in that most happy hour—
Down flowed the orphan's tear.

I saw her on the bed of death,
With loved ones standing near,
And while they watched her parting breath,
She shed for them a tear.

In yon bright world I saw her not,
But near the throne she stood—
Where earthly cares are all forgot,
And dried the briny flood.—SEL.

Modern Friendship.

When fortune smiles and looks serene,
'Tis—"Sir, how do you do?
Your family are well, I hope,
Can I serve them or you?"
But turn the scale—let fortune frown,
And ill and woes fly t'ye—
'Tis then—"I'm sorry for your loss,
But times are hard—good bye t'ye."—SEL.

The Art of Book Keeping.

How hard, when those who do not wish
To lend—that's lose—their books,
Are snared by anglers—folks that fish
With literary hooks;

Who call and take some favorite tome,
But never read it through:
They thus complete their set at home,
By making one at you.

Behold the book-shelf of a dunce
Who borrows—never lends;
Yon work, in twenty volumes, once
Belonged to twenty friends.

New tales and novels you may shut
From view—'tis all in vain;
They're gone—and though the leaves are cut,
They never 'come again.

For pamphlets lent I look around;
For tracts my tears are split;

But when they take a book that's bound,
'Tis surely extra guilt.

A circulating library
Is mine—my birds are flown:
There's one old volume left, to be
Like all the rest, alone.

I, of my Spenser quite bereft,
Last winter sore was shaken;
Of Lamb I've but a quarter left,
Nor could I save my Bacon.

They picked my Locke, to me far more
Than Bramah's patent worth;
And now my losses I deplore,
Without a Home on earth,

Even Glover's works I cannot put
My frozen hands upon,
Though ever since I lost my Foote,
My Bunyan has been gone.

My life is wasting fast away—
I suffer from these shocks;
And though I've fixed a lock on Gray,
There's gray upon my locks.

They still have made me slight returns,
And thus my grief divide:
For oh! they've cured me of my Burns,
And eased my Akenside.

But all I think I shall not say,
Nor let my anger burn;
For as they have not found me Gay,
They have not left me Stearne.—Hood.

French Lines on Health:—

Charme de la jeunesse, ame de la beauté,
Compagne du travail et de la temperance,
Santé, premier des biens, trésor de l'indigence,
Soutien de nos vertus. source de nos desirs,
Toi, sans qui la nature offre en vains les plaisirs,
Tu reviens consoler, dans la saison nouvelle,
Le mourant qui s'éteint, le vieillard qui t'appelle.
"Les saisons."

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